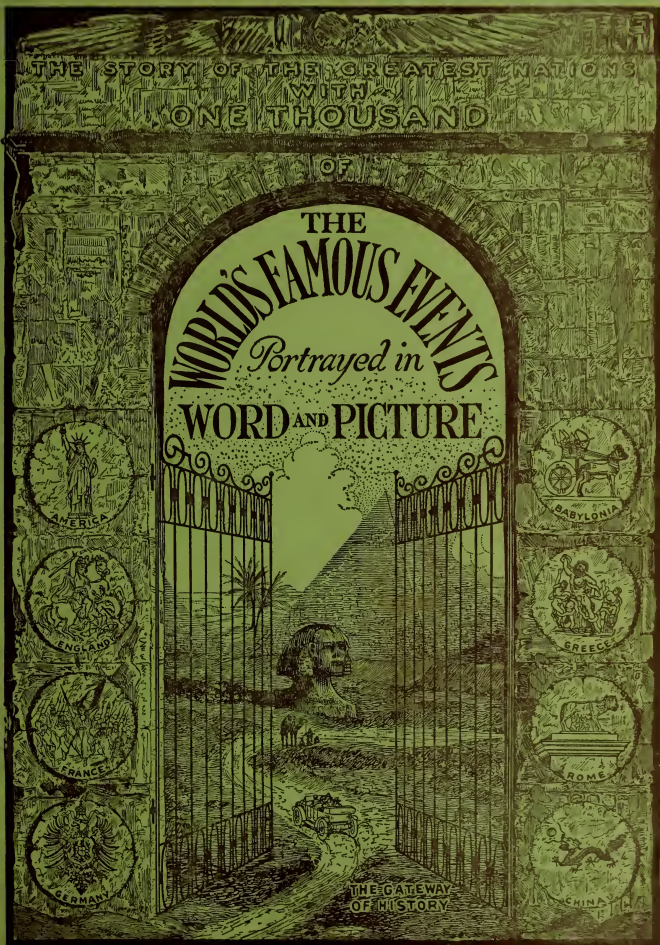


PART 31. SOLD BY SUBSCRIPTION IN COMPLETE SETS ONLY. PRICE 25 CENTS.





HUNYADI AT BELGRADE

(The Mighty Warrior and the Monk Capistran Lead the Peasants Against the Turks)

From a drawing by the French master, Gustave Doré (1832-1883)

CHIEF hero of the Hungarians in their long struggle against the Turks was John Hunyadi. After the death of the powerful Albert of Austria, the Turks invaded Hungary in overwhelming numbers. The scattered nobles were dismayed and helpless. In this crisis Hunyadi, one of the minor chieftains, came forward and with wonderful military genius defeated one force of the invaders after another. At last all Europe joined him in a crusade; but the Christian forces were completely destroyed by the Turks at Varna.

Again Hunyadi saved his country from a subjugation that seemed inevitable. The Turks advanced with all their armies, determined to make an end of Hungary and complete the conquest of Europe. Hunyadi could no longer get help from other lands, scarcely even could he rally his own exhausted and despairing countrymen. But a fanatical monk, John Capistran, came to his aid, preaching to the people with such fire that, armed only with scythes and farming tools, the peasants joined Hunyadi in large bodies. With this crudely armed force Hunyadi marched against the celebrated and well-trained Turkish army, vastly outnumbering him. The Turks were besieging Belgrade, and there Hunyadi overthrew them in so disastrous a battle that they fled and not till two generations afterward did they again venture to attack these terrible Hungarians.







THE DEFECTION OF THE BOY KING

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THE ELECTION OF THE BOY KING

(Hunyadi's Son Matthias Invited to Become King of Hungary)

From a painting by the Hungarian artist, Jan Mateiko (1838-1893)

HUNYADI met nothing but ingratitude from the two foreign kings who ruled Hungary during his life. Both of them had been elected in the hope that they would bring foreign troops to help Hungary against the Turks. But the race of Hunyadi proved its real defenders. When Hunyadi died he left two young sons. His king, who had feared him in life, now declared him a traitor and executed his eldest son. The infuriated Hungarians elected Hunyadi's next son, the lad Matthias, to be their king. Never before had they thus bowed before one of their minor nobility.

Matthias thus unexpectedly summoned to the throne proved worthy of his great father. Indeed he is generally regarded as having been Hungary's ablest king. He was certainly her most successful one. He invaded Turkey and won back province after province from the Mahometans. He defeated the Bohemians, and even at one time took possession of Austria, compelling its Hapsburg duke, who was also Emperor of Germany, to wander landless through his other provinces. Matthias became the richest and most splendid sovereign of the fifteenth century.

Hundreds of tales of this beloved King Matthias are still current in Hungary, of his courage, his chivalry, his justice, his wild love of adventure. He has become the typical hero of his race.







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THE CRISIS OF THE HAPSBURG FORTUNES

(Maximilian of Austria is Betrothed to the Great Heiress Mary of Burgundy)

From a painting by the Viennese artist, Leo Reiffenstein

MATTHIAS left no son, and his dominions became again the scene of strife between claimants to his power. Meanwhile the Hapsburg fortunes rose again. The Emperor whom Matthias had expelled from Vienna had a son who became the Emperor Maximilian I. He recaptured Vienna from the Hungarians, who were too busy fighting among themselves to make any effort to oppose him.

From the life of this Maximilian we date all the widest fortune of the Hapsburgs. It was the common phrase of later generations to say that everything came to the Hapsburgs through marriage. Thus with Maximilian, his own duchy of Austria had become so impoverished that he was penniless, but he wedded, as you may remember, the greatest heiress of his day, the Princess Mary of Burgundy, and thus succeeded to all the Burgundian lands, including the very wealthy cities of Flanders and Holland. It was in Flanders that he was first sent by his father, the Emperor, to be betrothed to Mary. He and she were charmed with each other, as indeed all the Flemish burghers were with this gallant young Max. The two lovers were, however, separated by their parents and had many vicissitudes before they were finally married.







THE HAPSBURG EMPERORS OF GERMANY

(The Chief Figures in the Line of Hapsburgs Who Ruled Germany from Maximilian's Time)

Specially prepared for the present series

THERE was never any law passed saying that these Hapsburg dukes of Austria should be hereditary emperors of Germany; but from the time of Maximilian onward they were always so powerful that the position of emperor did pass from each of them to the next in regular succession. Philip, the son of Maximilian, died before his father; but Philip also added to the family domains by a fortunate marriage; he wedded the heiress of Ferdinand and Isabella, the rich Spanish sovereigns. So all Spain and its vast American possessions went to the Hapsburgs by marriage. Maximilian's grandson, Charles V, thus became the ruler over half of Europe. He was, as you will recall, the Emperor of Germany during the Protestant Reformation. After Charles V came his brother Ferdinand I. In his day both Hungary and Bohemia were again in need of help against the Turks, so they elected Ferdinand, as the strongest man in Europe, to be their king. These two countries thus came also under the Hapsburg dominion and have remained there ever since.

The other chief Hapsburg emperors are also pictured here; Ferdinand's son, Maximilian II, who greatly furthered Protestantism; Matthias and Ferdinand II, the Emperors who plunged Germany into the awful Thirty Years War; Maria Theresa, the "Empress Queen," the greatest woman of her time; her son, Joseph II, the republican and radical, and Francis II, who fought against Napoleon and at the French command declared the old Empire of Germany to be ended.







THE LITTLE DEER

By the author of "The Little Deer" and "The Little Deer"

Published by the Little Deer Press, Little Deer, N. H.

THE LITTLE DEER is a story of a little deer who was born in a forest and who lived there for many years. He was a very happy deer and he was very brave. He was very kind and he was very gentle. He was very strong and he was very fast. He was very smart and he was very wise. He was very good and he was very bad. He was very beautiful and he was very ugly. He was very young and he was very old. He was very small and he was very big. He was very poor and he was very rich. He was very sad and he was very happy. He was very lonely and he was very loved. He was very alone and he was very together. He was very different and he was very the same. He was very strange and he was very normal. He was very weird and he was very ordinary. He was very unusual and he was very common. He was very special and he was very ordinary. He was very unique and he was very common. He was very one of a kind and he was very like everyone else. He was very different from everyone else and he was very like everyone else. He was very special and he was very ordinary. He was very unique and he was very common. He was very one of a kind and he was very like everyone else. He was very different from everyone else and he was very like everyone else.

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A DESPERATE DEED

(The Countess Zrinyi Blows up Her Own Castle to Destroy the Turks)

From a painting made in 1871 by the Hungarian artist, W. Ferencz

WHILE Austria was thus sweeping on in full tide of prosperity under one wealthy Emperor after another. Hungary was again in sore straits from her enemies the Turks. The Mahometans overran the entire land and began to press beyond it and lay siege to Vienna, as in Hunyadi's day they had besieged Belgrade. Yet the Hungarian people were never wholly conquered, and they continued to be a bulwark protecting Austria from the Turkish advance. Thus, for instance, in the year 1566, when the Sultan Solymán the Magnificent set out with all his forces to conquer Vienna, he was checked before the little Hungarian fortress of Szigeth. The commander of this, Count Zrinyi, withstood the entire Turkish army for weeks. In the series of assaults his men killed thirty thousand Turks, a dozen times the number of the defenders, and when at last the walls of Szigeth fell, the Count charged forth with the remnant of his men and fought till all had fallen.

When the Turks at length in triumph rushed in among the ruins they found the Countess Zrinyi waiting for them in the powder magazine with a flaming torch. Holding back till the last moment, to bring as many Turks as possible within the castle, she hurled her torch into the powder and so slew herself with three thousand of her foes. The Turks, thoroughly disheartened at meeting such desperate resistance, retreated to their own lands without even approaching Vienna.







THE REVENGE OF MONAGS

THE REVENGE OF MONAGS. A NOVEL IN THREE VOLUMES. BY THE AUTHOR OF 'THE REVENGE OF MONAGS.' LONDON: PUBLISHED BY J. JOHNSON, ST. PAUL'S CHURCH-YARD. 1825.

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THE REVENGE AT MOHACS

(The Austrian General Receives the Conquered Turkish Standard in the Second Battle of Mohacs)

*From the painting by the Düsseldorf master, Wilhelm Camphausen
(1818-1885)*

THE sufferings by which the Hungarians thus saved Austria seemed to the minds of men in those days much less important than the fact that Hungarian Christianity differed from that of Austria. The Austrian emperor, Leopold I, sought to compel the Hungarians to adopt his faith. He massacred them by hundreds, he sold their Protestant ministers as galley-slaves to the Turks. Finally, the remnant of the Hungarians roused in a most savage rebellion, and even made friends with the Turks, joining them in a campaign against Austria. This resulted in the last Turkish siege of Vienna (1683). Austria must have fallen before the Turks had she not once more been saved by foreigners. This time it was the Poles who came to Vienna's rescue and drove back the Turks.

Following up this advantage, the Austrian general, the Duke of Lorraine, recaptured all that part of Hungary which the Turks had conquered, including the Hungarian capital, Buda, which had been in Turkish hands for over a century. The Duke of Lorraine defeated the Turks in a huge battle at Mohacs, the very place where they had crushed the Hungarians in the previous century. So once more Hungary was free of the Turks; but instead of being made an independent kingdom as it had been before, it was now held fast in a most cruel bondage by the Austrians.







PRINCE EUGENE'S DISOBEDIENCE

(Eugene, by Defying the Imperial Command, Crushes the Turks at Zenta)

From a painting made in 1897 by the Austrian artist, H. Bergmeister

THE second battle of Mohacs marked the turning of the tide against the Turks in their long struggle against Hungary and Austria. But they were as yet by no means shorn of their power. Huge armies came back to battle once more against the forces of the Emperor Leopold. He found a great military commander in Prince Eugene of Savoy, the general who was afterward allied with the English Marlborough in winning Austria's victories over France. Eugene outmaneuvered the Turks and defeated them in one deadly battle after another until he completely broke their strength and left them a second rate power able only to struggle on the defensive against Russia and Austria.

Eugene's two greatest victories over the Turks were at Zenta in 1697 and at Belgrade in 1717. At Zenta, just as the fighting had begun, an imperial courier brought Eugene positive orders not to risk a battle, as the Turks outnumbered him. Eugene calmly put the orders in his pocket and commanded his men to advance. The Turks were swept from the field, and Eugene sent a cheerful apology to the Emperor explaining that his orders had come too late to permit an alteration of his plans. Leopold, however, refused to accept the success as excusing the disobedience, and the victorious Eugene was imprisoned. He was soon released "by the kindness of his Majesty."







"THE EMPRESS QUEEN"

(The Hungarian Nobles Vowing to Support Maria-Theresa and Her Son)

From a drawing by the recent French artist, P. Philippoteaux

THE male line of the Hapsburgs in Austria became extinct with the death of the Emperor Charles VI in 1740. He left, however, a daughter, the celebrated "Empress Queen" Maria Theresa. She married Francis, the Duke of Lorraine, and he was elected Emperor, because he was her husband. Thus their descendants, who have since ruled the Austrian domains, would naturally be called by his family name rather than hers; but so great was the station and influence of Maria Theresa that her husband's personality has become lost in hers and their descendants are still called the Hapsburgs.

This rule of a woman was not easily acceded to by the proud German rulers. Frederick the Great of Prussia was especially resolved to snatch from the weak hands of a woman such Austrian lands as he wished. His example was followed by others, and at first it seemed as if the young Maria Theresa would be helpless. She was, however, faithfully supported by her Austrians, and she won the Hungarians from their attitude of sullen rebellion to one of devoted loyalty. She went among their nobles almost alone and with her infant son in her arms appealed to them for support as an independent nation, promising them all their ancient rights. The chivalric nobles snatched out their swords and united in their ancient oath of loyalty, crying, "We will die for our ruler, Maria Theresa."







THE TWO PHILOSOPHERS

(Frederick the Great of Prussia Welcomes the Young Emperor Joseph)

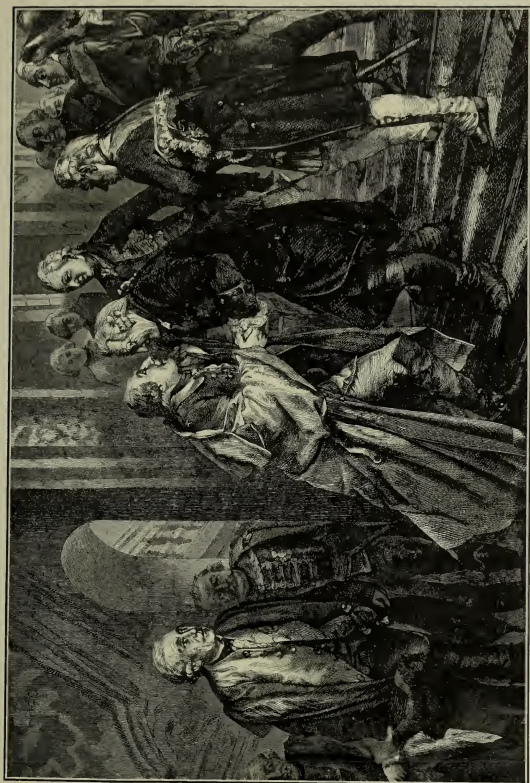
From a painting by Adolf von Menzel of Breslau (1815-1905)

THE baby son whom Maria Theresa had displayed to the Hungarians became in time her successor as the Emperor Joseph II. The whole policy of Joseph's rule was in direct opposition to that of his mother. She had been conservative and Catholic; he was a radical and in religion a "free thinker." The days of the French Revolution were approaching; and Joseph, youthful and enthusiastic, had seized upon many of the doctrines of the French philosophers about the equality and brotherhood of man.

Joseph was also an ardent admirer of that other philosopher and "benevolent despot," Frederick the Great of Prussia, whom Maria Theresa had spent all her life in resisting. Hence Joseph's first use of his authority was to make friends with Frederick and visit him. You can easily imagine how warmly the shrewd old Prussian king welcomed the young enthusiast and sought to mould him to his purposes.

At their first meeting they talked philosophy and the best methods of compelling their subjects to be happy by force, a system which in those days was called "benevolent despotism." But the chief practical result of the comradeship of these two was the seizure of Poland. With Russia's aid they calmly took possession of this free kingdom and divided it among them.







AN ECHO OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

(The Peasants of Bohemia Rise in 1790 and Massacre Their Nobles)

From a painting by the Bohemian artist, Václav Hradeky

THE mixture of Emperor Joseph's ill-advised despotism with his equally ill-considered democracy produced some startling results. He forced all sorts of reforms upon his people, reforms which they neither desired nor understood, but which his soldiers compelled them to adopt. Instead of being thanked by his subjects, he was hated and distrusted. He tried to teach them the principles of equality; but the only result was that the peasantry of Bohemia, being told that they were as good as their masters and hearing vaguely that somewhere in France the people had seized the government, resolved to do the same themselves. They began operations by a sudden uprising in which they made prisoners of many of the aristocracy, and then drove them forth into the street one by one to be torn to pieces by a howling mob.

Joseph, horrified by the result of his efforts at uplifting his people, lost all faith in democracy and became an autocrat of the severest type. He died, and his brother, the next emperor, crushed the Bohemian rebels with a cruelty almost equal to their own. He afterward withdrew most of Joseph's hated reforms, and suppressed every spark of independence, every effort at progress which he detected anywhere in his domains.







THE STRUGGLE AGAINST NAPOLEON

(Hofer Summons to Arms the Austrian Peasants of the Tyrol)

From a painting made in 1876 by the Austrian master, Franz Defregger

THE French Revolution involved all Europe. At first the other powers, with Austria at their head, tried to suppress republicanism in France. Afterward they had to defend themselves against the military aggressions of Napoleon. The forces of the Austrian emperor were completely crushed at Austerlitz in 1805 and Napoleon appropriated the entire western half of Austria's many possessions.

He encountered, however, an unexpected difficulty. Usually the helpless peasantry of a captured land allowed themselves to be transferred from one monarch to another like sheep. But the peasantry of the Tyrol or Austrian Alps were different; they had long been practically independent; the tie which bound them to their Hapsburg dukes was one of loyal sentiment not of sullen helplessness. One of their number, the inn-keeper Andreas Hofer, summoned them together and they swore to cling to the Hapsburgs. The all-conquering French armies did not terrify them, for they felt well able to defend their mountains, as the Swiss had done. They repeatedly defeated the forces sent against them. But Austria gave them no help, and at length Napoleon turned all the strength of France against them and crushed them. Hofer was captured, and Napoleon treated the Tyrolese as he had the Prussians. As no king stood back of them "authorizing" their warfare, he had them tried by courtmartial as traitors to their French masters. Hofer and other leaders were executed.







AUSTRIA'S GREATEST BATTLE

(The Aroused Austrians Defeat Napoleon at Aspern)

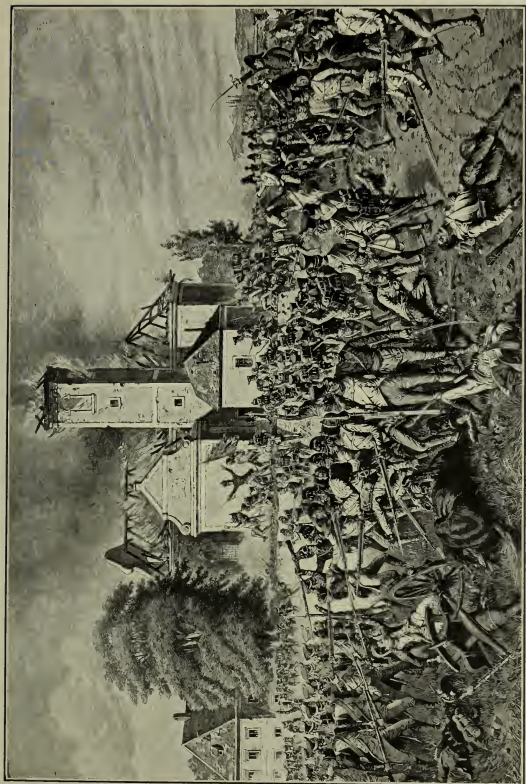
From a painting by the Austrian artist, A. von Mäly

IT was French tyranny that rescued Europe from Napoleon. He defeated each sovereign he marched against; but wherever his Frenchmen thus secured rule they so outraged the people, that in his later wars it was these people, these deeply infuriated masses, that fought against him, not as at first the unwilling soldiers of despotic kings. Thus when in 1809 the Hapsburg Emperor, driven to desperation by Napoleon's exactions, called the remnant of his people to help him in one last war, they responded almost as one man. The Emperor's brother, Duke Charles, gathered an army which met Napoleon in the battle of Aspern and defeated him.

Aspern was "a soldiers' battle." So desperately did the Austrian troops fight that the French were no match for them. Napoleon himself was astounded; he said, "The man who did not see the Austrians fight at Aspern has seen nothing."

The Austrian Emperor and his brother, however, took to themselves and to their generalship the credit for this great victory. They recklessly plunged into another battle, in which Napoleon, knowing now what he had to face, completely out-manœuvred them and defeated them. It was not until the Prussians rose in a similar fury that his power was crushed and the various German states recovered their independence. At Napoleon's downfall Austria regained all her old possessions.





nately the German advisers of the new king persuaded him to distrust Hunyadi, and he never acted in cordial harmony with his great general.

The Turkish Sultan, Mahomet II., conquered Constantinople in 1453, and, having thus destroyed the last vestige of the ancient Empire of the East, was free to turn his whole force against Hungary. He made a solemn vow to capture the city and fortress of Belgrade, the frontier defence of Hungary upon the Danube; and in 1456 he appeared before it with one hundred and fifty thousand men. Hunyadi, by the utmost exertions, could raise from his exhausted country only about fifteen thousand volunteers. The King and court gave him no aid. An Italian monk, however, John Capistran, entered the land, and preached with such fiery eloquence that an army of over fifty thousand crusaders was raised from among the peasantry. These Capistran placed under Hunyadi's command, and, though they were armed with only peasants' weapons, scythes and axes, their intense fanaticism made them the most efficient of troops.

Hunyadi gathered them on small vessels and rafts, and attacked the fleet of the Turks on the Danube. The huge, unwieldy men-of-war were burned or put to flight, and after a desperate struggle the Hungarians won their way into beleaguered Belgrade. The furious Turks, who had believed such a feat impossible, made a reckless assault upon the fortress, but were repulsed; and Hunyadi, pursuing his advantage, charged upon their camp. John Capistran rode at the head of the crusaders, bearing aloft a crucifix. Impetuously following their two leaders, the Hungarians swept the Turks like chaff from the field. Forty thousand of the Mahometans were slain, and three hundred cannons captured, with all the munitions of war.

For the time, at least, the power of the Turks was broken, and not for sixty years did they again threaten Belgrade. But the life of Hunyadi was near its close. Either from wounds, fever, or exhaustion, he died soon after this, his greatest battle. King Ladislaus promptly quarrelled with the hero's two sons. The elder was imprisoned and slain. Hunyadi himself was proclaimed to have been a crafty traitor. King Ladislaus died only a few days after his youthful victim, and the whole country, rising in its wrath, proclaimed Matthias, Hunyadi's surviving son, king of Hungary.

Matthias (1458-1490), though under twenty when thus summoned to the throne, proved a warrior second only to his mighty father. He turned his arms against the Bohemians, and avenged the Hussite invasions of Hungary by well-nigh conquering Bohemia, and wrenching from it the ancient province of Moravia. He repeatedly defeated the Turks, and finally, quarrelling with the feeble German Emperor Frederick, he completely conquered Austria and attached Vienna itself to his dominions (1485).

There was a wild love of adventure in this Magyar chieftain, Matthias.

Nothing pleased him better than to match his strength against that of others. He was constantly engaging in tournaments with his knights, and woe to the courtier whom the King suspected of purposely yielding to him. A trial of wits was equally attractive to him, and in war he was his own most accomplished spy.

Once, disguised as a Mahometan peddler, he penetrated to the very heart of the Turkish camp, and stood all day by the Sultan's tent, pretending to sell his wares. Escaping in the night to his own army, he sent back word to the Sultan: "You are ill-served and worse guarded. I know everything you do. Yesterday I watched you all day with my own eyes; and to prove it, I will tell you just what you ate"—which he did. The Turkish monarch, astounded and suspicious, broke up his camp and retreated with all his army.

Matthias seemed influenced in all things by this love of display. With his wealth and successes, he made his Hungarian court the most brilliant of the period in Europe. At the very time when the poor Hapsburg Emperor Frederick, driven from Vienna, was wandering in an oxcart from one impoverished little German court to another, Matthias was struggling to expend an income of two million florins (\$800,000), which was double the annual treasure of the King of France, the next wealthiest of European sovereigns. The Hungarian King dictated as his own proud epitaph: "A conquered Austria evidences my power. I was the fear of all the world. The Emperor of the Germans and the Emperor of the Turks both shrank before me. Death alone could conquer me."

A renown which seems to our days better worth the having, came to Matthias through his justice. For instance, he had conquered Austria only because Frederick evaded the terms of a treaty with him. And he always professed himself ready to restore the Emperor's possessions if the terms of the treaty were fulfilled. These included, however, the payment to Matthias of a sum of money far greater than the unhappy Frederick was able ever to raise; and thus his lands continued unransomed.

It was to his own subjects that Matthias showed the best side of his character. Remembering always that his race had sprung from the people, he sought in every way to govern for their good, and a Magyar saying still echoes his name:

"Now Matthias is dead,
Justice is fled."

His reign attracts our special attention, because it marked the utmost splendor of the Hungarian kingdom. With his death, the country plunged into a decline from which it has not yet recovered. He left no legitimate heir; and as usual, the various claimants to the throne disrupted the land with civil war.

Ladislaus of Bohemia was finally acknowledged king, being chosen apparently, as so many of the German emperors were, because he seemed the weakest

candidate, and not likely to interfere with the pleasures of the nobles who placed him upon the throne. He allowed the Austrians under Maximilian to regain Vienna without a battle.

During his reign occurred a terrible peasant insurrection, in which thousands of the nobles lost their lives. At length, however, the great lords uniting crushed the rebels, and new laws were passed which punished the peasantry with frightful severity. Thenceforward the lower classes, Sclavic and partly Hungarian, were made mere slaves. The nobles boasted that Hungary was a free country, but they kept all the freedom for themselves.

Louis, the young son of Ladislaus, succeeded him both in Bohemia and Hungary. By this time the two countries had fallen completely into the power of their great nobles, who with open indifference robbed the boy king of almost all his revenues, and even descended to fisticuffs in his presence. So low had the dignity of the royal position sunk, that most of the barons of Louis lived better and had more money than he. One ambassador wrote home that the young king sat upon his throne in a pair of worn and broken shoes. He could not even pay the bills for his food, a misfortune which the lad doubtless regarded as especially serious, since when he could afford it he was in the habit of luxuriating on seven meals a day.

The Turks, again assailing the country, found now no Hunyadi to oppose them, no free peasantry to rise in a crusade against them. One frontier fortress after another fell into the invaders' hands, including Belgrade itself. Encouraged by their success, they began advancing toward the heart of the kingdom. Louis by a desperate effort gathered a small army, with which he endeavored to hurl back the intruders at Mohacs (August 29, 1526). He was slain and his troops were scattered.

The battle marks the downfall of the Magyar power. The land was desolated by plunder and massacre, and two weeks later the victorious Mahometans entered Buda, the country's capital. The greater part of Hungary became a Turkish province, and remained more or less under Turkish control for nearly two hundred years.

As Hungary sank, Austria rose. The Hapsburgs had been vastly increasing their importance. Frederick III. proved, indeed, but a feeble Emperor of Germany, but he procured for his son Maximilian that fortunate marriage with Mary, the heiress of Burgundy, which added so much to the Hapsburg power. At this time originated the celebrated epigram:

"Bella gerant alii, tu felix Austria nube;
Nam que Mars aliiis, dat tibi regna Venus."*

* Let others war; thou lucky Austria, wed.
What Mars gives them, Venus transfers to thee.

Maximilian's son wedded Joanna of Spain, and brought that country also under the Hapsburgs.

The story of this remarkable family, as regards their position as emperors of Germany, has been already told. We need now to recount only their rule over the eastern lands which their descendants hold to-day. One of Maximilian's grandsons, Charles V., became Emperor of Germany. The other, Ferdinand, was wedded to Anna, daughter of King Ladislaus of Bohemia and Hungary. They were both children, as were also another pair united at the same brilliant ceremonial, Maximilian's granddaughter Mary, and Ladislaus' son Louis, the feeble victim of the battle of Mohacs.

The misfortunes of other lands became thus the good luck of the Hapsburgs. After Mohacs, Ferdinand was the nearest heir to Louis' throne, through his wife Anna and also through his sister, Louis' widow. The Bohemians readily elected Ferdinand to their vacant sovereignty. So also did a party of the Hungarians, and thus once more the three crowns of Austria, Bohemia, and what remained of Hungary were united upon one head, that of the Hapsburgs. The union has not since been broken.

Thus from 1526 the story of the three lands becomes more nearly the story of one. Both Bohemia and Hungary leaned strongly toward Protestantism, and Ferdinand, in assuming their government, guaranteed to each country a certain amount of religious freedom. His successors by degrees withdrew this, amid much jangling and bitter quarrels. In Bohemia the dispute culminated in 1618 in the Thirty Years' War, the extermination of Protestantism, and the ruin of the country, which sank to be what, until very lately, it remained, a mere province of Austria. It lost all independent existence or government of its own, and became the most backward and down-trodden land of Western Europe.

In Hungary the main interest continued to be the warfare with the Turks, into which Austria was now perforce drawn in her own defence. The eastern Hungarians acknowledged themselves vassals of Turkey, and set up a king of their own under the Sultan's protection, while that monarch, not satisfied with his conquest of Buda, pressed on into western Hungary, and was soon upon the Austrian border. Vienna itself had to endure the first of its sieges by the Turks (1529).

The swords of the Mahometans were thus hewing a path farther and farther into central Europe. Constantinople, Belgrade, Buda, and now Vienna marked the advancing steps of their fierce and barbaric hordes. The first Vienna siege was abandoned because of the severity of the approaching winter, to which the Turks were ill-accustomed. But in 1532 the Sultan Solymán, mightiest of the Mahometan rulers, returned with an army said to have numbered three hundred

thousand men. The scattered Hungarian fortresses yielded to him, one after another, and he advanced along a trail of blood and flame.

The Emperor Ferdinand hastened to gather troops for the defence of his capital. The little detachments were summoned in from outlying posts. One alone refused to retreat. Juricsics, the Hungarian commander of the fortress of Guntz on the frontier between Austria and Hungary, had under him about forty soldiers. He gathered also some seven hundred peasants, armed them at his own expense, and defied the entire forces of Solyman.

For four weeks those hundreds of thousands of soldiers besieged the unyielding fortress. Their great cannons battered it to pieces, its defenders dwindled away, but still the defiant Juricsics refused to surrender. The piles of ruin formed in themselves a bulwark from which the charging Turks were repelled again and again. At Vienna the gathering Austrian army grew ever larger, and the position of the Sultan Solyman was becoming dangerous.

At last Juricsics, on the entreaty of his exhausted men, consented to display a Turkish flag on the battlements. It does not appear that a single Turkish soldier entered the walls, but the flag was enough. "Guntz is conquered," said the Sultan, pointing to the floating banner. "Behold, I am indeed invincible! Let us return home out of this miserable country."

A similar experience awaited him in 1566. He again set out to conquer Vienna, but was detained before the town and second-rate fortress of Szigeth, in Croatia, which the Hungarian chief Zrinyi defended with twenty-five hundred men. The town was surrounded by a lake, from which the Turks drained off the waters. Szigeth, however, continued to resist their assaults, until the outer town was destroyed by fire. Then Zrinyi and his surviving heroes retreated within the fortress, and defended it with the same consummate bravery. Already, weeks of valuable time had been lost by the Turks. The aged Solyman appeared in person among his Janissaries to urge them to the assault, but in vain. He attempted to bribe Zrinyi with magnificent offers, promising to make him prince of Croatia and Dalmatia. Threats were also tried, but equally without result.

At length a Turkish mine shattered the towers of Szigeth to the dust, and Zrinyi, clothing himself in his richest robes and filling his pockets with treasures, "so that his corpse should be worth the finding," set fire to his possessions and charged out of the castle with his devoted followers. They were all slain. The Hungarian women would, if permitted, have rushed to death with their husbands, and when the Turks penetrated to the ammunition magazine in the heart of the ruins, the Countess Zrinyi exploded the powder and brought three thousand infidels with her to death.

In all, some thirty thousand of their army perished during the siege. Soly-

man himself did not live to rejoice in his triumph; he had died in a fit of passion a few days before the final assault. The Turkish Vizier, not daring to reveal this to his troops, set their master's corpse upright upon a throne and had the army parade before the body in review, though at a distance. Only after the fall of Szigeth did the Vizier confess the great Sultan's death, whereon the Turkish army retreated. Once more Vienna had been saved by the desperate valor of a little Magyar band.

By such deeds of unsupported heroism did the Hungarians make themselves famous. Their Austrian sovereigns gave them no support. Even Szigeth itself might have been saved had the Germans cared to come to its relief. The Magyars had elected Ferdinand to be their king, counting on his aid against the Turks, but in truth they had only added to the numbers of their oppressors. Ferdinand and his successors were determined to compel them to reaccept Catholicism; and when not warring against the Turks, the Hungarians had to turn their exhausted strength against Austrian tyranny. Is there any cause for surprise that the arts of civilization did not flourish among them; that they became little better than savages? The wonder is rather that, thus persecuted upon all sides, any of the race have survived at all.

By the year 1600 the power of the Mahometans began to decay. They sought no more for conquest; the tribute which they had exacted even from proud Austria, was abandoned, and they consented to an equal peace, which, however, left half of Hungary in their hands.

The eastern Magyars managed to build up an independent kingdom for themselves in Transsylvania, which gradually increased in importance, especially during the Thirty Years' War, when nearly all Hungary was in revolt against Austria. The power of the Hapsburgs over Germany faded during that tragic struggle; but Leopold I., when he became emperor in 1657, promised such extensive reforms and so much of religious freedom, that he reconciled to his rule most of the people in his personal domains in Austria and Bohemia, and in Hungary also.

During his reign the Turks again menaced Vienna, but were defeated in a fierce battle fought on the Alpine slopes at the foot of Mount St. Gotthard. So complete was their overthrow that they might have been driven from Hungary, had not the Emperor sacrificed his subjects' interests to his own. In the treaty that followed, he surrendered even more of Hungary to the Mahometans, in consideration of personal advantages granted him elsewhere. Then, in 1673, he declared the ancient constitution of the Magyars abolished, and reduced their land to an Austrian province.

The betrayed and infuriated Hungarians once more revolted, and then began such a warfare as fortunately has seldom disgraced humanity. In their mad-

dened hatred of everything German, the rebels inflicted death by the most frightful tortures upon every prisoner. Nor were the Hapsburg soldiers behind them in retaliation. It was a war, not of men, but of savage beasts, only human in the ingenuity with which they intensified an enemy's agonies. Some of the Hungarians even allied themselves with the Turks and aided another desolating Mahometan invasion. This resulted in the celebrated siege of Vienna in 1683, when the city was only saved by Sobieski and his Polish troops.

The Hungarian rights of self-government had been re-acknowledged and restored by frightened Austria; but after Sobieski's victory, Leopold, who had fled from Vienna during the siege, returned and deliberately adopted the cruel policy intended to make further Magyar revolt impossible. He is said to have declared openly that he would make Hungary a submissive and Catholic land though he made it an empty desert. He established at Eperies a court better known as the "bloody shambles of Eperies." For thirty days thirty executioners were kept steadily at work. Hungary's best and bravest were dragged to death and unnamable torture. In many cases no crime even of rebellion was proved against the victims. They were slain merely for their estates.

At the same time the Austrian army was sent against the enfeebled Turks. Its commander, the Duke of Lorraine, captured the fortress of Ofen after a fierce siege and thus recovered Buda, the ancient Hungarian capital which had been in Mahometan possession for one hundred and sixty years. The next year, 1687, he won a great battle on the field of Mohacs, the very spot where the Hungarians had encountered their crushing disaster.

The Emperor Leopold then found an even more successful general in Eugene, Prince of Savoy, who for over twenty years continued winning from the Turks one tremendous victory after another. At Zenta, in 1697, just as Eugene had made all preparations for an attack on the main army of the Mahometans under their Grand Vizier, he received a letter containing Leopold's positive orders not to risk a battle. Eugene had, however, advanced too far to retreat, so putting his orders in his pocket he proceeded with the assault. His audacity was crowned with a tremendous victory, which sent the Turks flying out of Hungary.

Eugene returned in triumph to Vienna, but was received as coldly as its Polish deliverer Sobieski had been. Indeed, the hero of Zenta was even temporarily imprisoned by the Emperor "for having disobeyed orders."

An unwise peace once more restored part of the much contested and long ruined Hungary to the Sultan; but the war soon broke out again, and a vast horde of Turks met Eugene at Peterwardein in 1716. It was a desperate fight, well contested upon both sides and raging for hours. At last the Turkish Vizier

fell, and his troops fled once more out of Hungary, leaving thirty thousand of their dead behind.

The next year Eugene advanced upon Belgrade, and with sixty thousand soldiers laid siege to that, the last stronghold of Mahometan power on the Danube. The fortress, which was considered impregnable, contained thirty thousand well-provisioned troops; but the anxious Sultan raised an additional army of nearly two hundred thousand, and dispatched it under his ablest general to Belgrade's relief.

The Turkish Pasha, instead of attacking the Austrians, built entrenchments around their camp. Eugene thus found himself between two fires, the powerful garrison within Belgrade, and the enormous army without. Moreover, the sickly season was at hand, and his men, imprisoned on the low, swampy land, began to wither away under fierce fevers. The general himself was racked with the tortures of the disease, but, summoning all his energy, he determined to achieve the impossible. He directed a night attack, not against the fortress, but against the two hundred thousand men who surrounded him.

The unexpectedness of the assault made it successful. The bewildered Turks, taken completely by surprise, fired upon one another in the darkness. Cannon roared aimlessly, cavalry horses trampled upon friend and foe, and men slashed blindly right and left with crimsoned cimetars. The confusion and terror of the scene must have been beyond all conception. At last, with the cry of "Treason!" the Mahometans fled.

So complete was the overthrow that Belgrade itself surrendered unassailed, and the Sultan made no attempt to retrieve his disasters. He signed a humiliating peace in 1718, surrendering the last remnant of the lands his ancestors had conquered at Mohacs. The power of the Turks in Hungary was broken forever.



TURKS ATTACKING VIENNA IN 1683



JOSEPH I. RECEIVING THE SURRENDER OF THE HUNGARIANS.

Chapter LXXIII

THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

BRIGHTER days began to dawn for Hungary. She was at last free, so far as the Turks were concerned. A change had come also in the policy of her Hapsburg kings. Notwithstanding the "shambles of Eperies," perhaps because of it, another Hungarian rebellion more determined than ever had broken out in 1704, and continued for seven years. To the Emperor Joseph I. belongs the honor of having at last reconciled the indomitable spirit of the Hungarians to the Hapsburg rule.

In 1711, when the rebels were crushed helpless under his feet, he made with them the generous treaty of Szathmar, which recognized many of their constitutional rights. His successor, Charles VI., went even further in this direction, acknowledging the right of the Hungarians to elect their own king, and promising many reforms, some of which were actually carried out.

The inextinguishable national spirit of the Magyars was thus conciliated. They felt themselves treated as an independent race, and in return they readily agreed to continue their kingship in the Hapsburg line. Maria Theresa, the daughter of Charles VI., succeeded to her father's possessions in 1740. You will recall the difficulties which Frederick the Great and others brought upon her, from all sides. Half a century before, the Hungarians would have eagerly taken advantage of her necessities to declare their independence; but now they had acquired something of loyalty and even liking for the house of Hapsburg, and when the young queen

threw herself upon them for support, they responded with the intense devotion which is part of the Magyar nature.

The fair queen, flushing with new hope, her heart thrilling with noble pride at the worship of a nation, went with delicate grace through the ancient kingly ceremony. Riding up St. Stephen's mount, she brandished the royal sword toward each of the four quarters of the globe and defied all enemies to come against her. Poor queen! the ceremonial had more than a spectacular meaning for her, against whom all the monarchs of Europe seemed at that very moment advancing in arms.

She showed her infant son to the Hungarians, and implored them to support him and her against the Germans. Whereon the impressionable nobles, forgetting their wrongs, forgetting all their ancient hatred of the Hapsburgs, waved their swords before her and cried: "We will die for our sovereign, Maria Theresa."

With the aid of her Hungarians and her equally faithful Austrians, Maria Theresa drove back all her enemies. Frederick the Great wrenched Silesia from her, and she lost some distant Italian provinces; but the heart of her domain she retained intact, and she succeeded in placing her husband upon the Imperial throne of Germany. Neither she nor her people ever forgot how they had stood by her in her time of extremest need. She made a generous and wise queen to them always, beloved as a daughter in her youth, as a mother in her age.

The good feeling thus established between the Hapsburgs and their subjects was immediately upset by the next ruler, Maria Theresa's son, Joseph II. He sought the friendship of his mother's foe, Frederick the Great, and was welcomed almost as a son by that aged despot, in imitation of whom Joseph determined to establish an absolute power over the Hapsburg lands. A coronation ceremonial of the Magyars, a survival of their ancient republican equality, reversed the formula of most lands, and required, not that the people should swear allegiance to the king, but that he should take oath to them, vowing to defend their laws and customs. The Hapsburgs had always gone through this ceremony cheerfully, without allowing it to weigh in the least upon their consciences. But Joseph II. was a conscientious man. He had no more intention of defending Hungarian customs than had his ancestors, but he differed from the previous Hapsburgs in being unwilling to take the oath.

This was against all precedent, and so there was dissatisfaction from the start. Indeed, Joseph was never really crowned king of Hungary at all, whence his people there called him the "*kalapos*" king ("hatted" or not crowned king), and hated him accordingly.

Joseph was a philosopher, plunged deep in the noble, abstract theories of the

eighteenth century; he meant to make his kingdom an elysium for his subjects. Unfortunately, like most philosophers, he planned to construct his paradise upon his own theories, and then to force his subjects to take up their abode in it. Prejudice, he considered quite out of place, in other people. Almost his first effort in Hungary aimed at compelling the Magyars to speak the German language. By the utmost exercise of his philosophic ingenuity, he could not have hit upon a method better contrived to win him the intense antagonism of the entire Magyar race.

They were thus blinded to the value of his other reforms. He abolished serfdom—and the serfs themselves cried out that he was destroying the ancient constitution of the land. He established public schools—and the people said he was planning to teach their children to be infidels, and thus present their young souls to the evil one. The disaffection spread to Austria and Bohemia, where Joseph became almost equally unpopular.

His wiser laws enriched all his dominions. He built needed public works; he sought to equalize taxation; but at the same time he passed intolerable intermeddling ordinances, such as the one that ordered the people to bury their dead in sacks, because it would save the expense of wooden coffins. The millions whose lives and happiness depended upon his laws, were kept always in a state of excited misgiving as to his next move; they wavered on the very edge of rebellion.

To complete his misfortunes, he made a disastrous campaign against the Turks, and removed the adored Hungarian crown, the ancient relic of St. Stephen, from Buda to Vienna "for safety's sake." The Hungarians burst into open revolt. They were given back their crown; and the disheartened Joseph died, declaring that his world had failed to understand or appreciate him—which was very true, whether we place the blame with him or with the people.

He was succeeded by his brother, Leopold II. (1790–1792), who spent the two years of his short reign in trying to pacify his exasperated subjects by nullifying most of Joseph's reforms. One of the old institutions was gone, fortunately, beyond resuscitation: that was serfdom. The peasants had tasted freedom; and much as they hated Joseph, they could not be persuaded to submit to slavery again. The echoes of the French Revolution began to thrill the land; and in Bohemia the exactions of the nobility roused the peasantry to a short-lived tumult of revolt, in which many of the upper classes were slain.

Leopold was succeeded by his son Francis II. (1792–1835), who ruled over the Hapsburg domains throughout the French Revolution and the wars with Napoleon. During the early part of his reign, Francis acquired considerable territory from the Turks and from Poland, in whose final partition in 1795 he

took a leading part. The northern and eastern boundaries of his land were extended to about where they are to-day.

When Francis II. ascended the throne he was only twenty-four, and at first the enthusiasm of youth inclined him toward a generous and liberal form of government; but the excesses into which the French republicans rushed when left to their own guidance so horrified him, the murmurings among his own people grew so threatening, that he gradually became the most determined advocate of absolute power. He was the pillar of strength around which all the reactionary forces of Europe grouped themselves in their resistance to France, to the people, and to change in general.

Austria and France, thus set in deliberate opposition to each other as leaders of the two great hostile impulses of Europe, began war as early as 1792; and it lasted with little intermission until 1815. Gains and losses were about equal upon either side, until Napoleon appeared. In 1796 he drove the Austrians from their Italian provinces, and in 1797 penetrated Austria and threatened Vienna.

The luxurious city, the centre of European pomp and extravagance, had seen no enemy approach its gates since the repulse of the Turks over a century before. Its pleasure-seeking citizens had forgotten the meaning of war. But they loved their country; and the contest which, when at a distance, they had treated with easy indifference as a political quarrel, now changed its entire character and became the struggle of a nation to maintain its independence.

Napoleon saw the change, and proposed peace. Francis II., incapable of comprehending the stupendous force that was being roused to his help, eagerly accepted the proffered terms. Humiliated and terrified by defeat, he and his ministers were easily cowed at Campo Formio. When they objected to some of the terms of the treaty, Napoleon swept a goblet crashing to the floor. "Thus," he said, "will I shatter your kingdom." The arrogant threat reduced them instantly to submission.

Under Napoleon's leadership, France soon ceased to represent progress and republicanism, and typified military ambition and despotism instead. Piece by piece, Austria lost to her rival all her western lands. She was driven from the Netherlands, part of which had been hers for centuries. She was expelled from Italy, where her ascendancy had lasted from the time of the battle of Pavia, in 1527. She lost most of her German possessions; and in 1806 Francis was compelled to resign his empty title of Emperor of a German Empire which no longer existed.

The Austrian Empire itself began technically in 1804, when Francis assumed the title of Emperor of Austria, in a proclamation which assured his

people that "each of our kingdoms, our principalities, and our provinces shall preserve as heretofore its title, its constitution, and its privileges."

Up to 1805, the Hapsburg power had, despite its reverses, been strengthened, rather than weakened, by the French wars. It had lost only distant territories, which were difficult to keep; and the heterogeneous peoples had grown much more united by their comradeship in arms. For over ten years Austrians, Hungarians, Bohemians, and Croats had been fighting side by side for a common cause, until a real feeling of union and nationality had crystallized among them. In the wars that followed 1805, this feeling was still further strengthened by their common sufferings and losses.

Napoleon captured Vienna, November 3, 1805, and defeated the Austrians and Russians at Austerlitz, December 2d. He then helped himself to Austria's Adriatic seacoast, and gave her Alpine provinces to Bavaria. The people of the plundered land drew closer together, their hatred of France intensified, and they themselves urged their sovereign to rebellion. In the war of 1809 the entire country fought as a unit against Napoleon. For the first time its forces won a great battle against the French conqueror himself. The desperate valor of the Austrian troops, fighting amid the gravestones of the old churchyard of Aspern, astonished Napoleon. He admitted that he had found rivals worthy of him, and is reported to have said: "Who did not see the Austrians at Aspern, has seen nothing."

The Archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrian forces, was hailed by his brother the Emperor Francis as the "saviour of our country." Austrian hopes rose to the highest point. But the fortunes of war remained with the mighty conqueror. Vienna had been already captured for the second time and its walls destroyed; and finally Duke Charles and his army were defeated at Wagram.

Wagram was Austria's final humiliation, her crushing overthrow. A large portion of the south of the land was attached to the French Empire under the name of the Illyrian Provinces. The populace of this district, being neither German nor Magyar, but of the down-trodden Slavonic race, seem to have readily welcomed the change of masters. The general loyalty of the Austrian lands to the Hapsburgs was, however, heroically and tragically displayed in the Alpine provinces.

The hardy mountaineers of the Tyrol, unlettered, ignorant of the world about them, attached themselves to the Austrian cause with a heroism simple and sublime. Andreas Hofer, an innkeeper and horsedealer, well known among his countrymen, became their leader. The Hapsburgs themselves encouraged him, and for months the peasants repelled army after army of French and Bavarians in open battle, or annihilated them among the mountain passes. The

Emperor Francis assured the Tyrolese that he would never again abandon such faithful subjects.

But Napoleon was stronger than he. In the peace that was signed between the two emperors in October of 1809, the Tyrol was not even mentioned. France was thus left free to turn all her strength against the gallant mountaineers, and they were finally overwhelmed. Hofer was captured, treated with every indignity and insult, and shot as a traitor.

Austria was forced into the position of a dependent ally of Napoleon. The Emperor's daughter, Maria Louisa, became the conqueror's bride; and Austria sent her share of troops under General Schwarzenberg to take part in the great Russian campaign of 1812.

Schwarzenberg did for Austria what General York did for Prussia. He managed to separate his forces from the main body of the French, escaped their disaster, negotiated separately with the Russians, and brought his army back to Austria in safety. In the European coalition which was promptly formed against France, Austria under the guidance of her able minister Metternich, held back, wavered apparently as to whether to join Napoleon or his foes. Thus she secured eager overtures from both sides, and when she finally gave her strength to the allies, her general, Schwarzenberg, was made commander-in-chief against Napoleon. When the tyrant was overthrown, Austria became once more the centre of diplomatic counsels.

The Congress of 1814, to settle the fate of liberated Europe, was held quite naturally in Vienna. The Austrian minister Metternich was made its president. The gorgeous and pleasure-loving Austrian capital, relieved from its nightmare of shame and suffering, burst into one round of resplendent fêtes. "The Congress does not advance," wrote one diplomat; "it only dances."

After nearly two years of dancing, under Metternich's clever guidance, the Congress found it had completed its work, and the members were at liberty to disperse. The forces of reaction had won a complete triumph. Every effort for constitutional liberty had been diplomatically defeated; every cry for reform cautiously hushed. The old "absolutism" was restored, and Catholic, reactionary Austria became the admitted centre from which European diplomacy took its guidance for a generation to follow. The Emperor Francis II., who had twice seen his capital helpless in an enemy's hands, found himself once more the most important monarch of his time.





SLAVIC PEASANTS PLUNDERING THE MAGYARS

Chapter LXXIV

THE PEOPLE'S STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM

THAT the close of the Congress of Vienna, Austria's power and influence stood at its culminating point. She had regained all her lost territories, excepting distant Belgium and some Rhine lands, which she felt better off without, and she had extended her sway over all of northern Italy, except Piedmont.

The fact that Austria to-day is no longer the greatest, nor even one of the great powers of Europe, is wholly due to her rulers. Metternich's clever statesmanship had been triumphantly successful with kings and ministers, but it failed utterly before the new force that was slowly dominating Europe—the power of the people.

Fortune seemed once more ready to bestow her choicest smiles upon the Hapsburgs; but Francis II. deliberately turned his back upon them. He might have been again Emperor of Germany; but he preferred his more independent and autocratic position as Emperor of Austria, and strove rather to weaken Germany and keep it divided. He might perhaps have firmly amalgamated his own heterogeneous subjects. All of these were at the moment proud of their victories over Napoleon, inclined toward union, friendly toward one another, and intensely loyal to their sovereign. But here also Francis adopted the crafty maxim of selfish power, "Divide and rule."

He once expressed his policy to the French ambassador: "My people do not catch the same illnesses at the same time. In France, when you are attacked

by a fever, you all have it at once. But I can send Hungarian troops to Italy, or Italians to Hungary, to take care of their sick neighbors. They do not understand one another, perhaps they hate—but from their hate comes order, and we secure the general peace.”

Therein lay the cause of his failure and that of Metternich: they persisted in tricking the people, treating them as enemies, and trying to crush them back into their ancient submission. This had become impossible. The school system of Maria Theresa and Joseph II. had wrought its work. The people were no longer so ignorant as to submit helplessly to oppression; and it had become difficult to find even a soldiery sufficiently brutalized to trample upon the rights of their countrymen.

The French Revolution had accomplished its mission, and the people comprehended at last that they and not the kings could be masters if they chose. Under these circumstances it became essential that a government should satisfy, or at least not wholly dissatisfy, its subjects. Otherwise it would pass away.

The personal popularity of Francis upheld the Hapsburg government during his life. He and his people had endured together the misfortunes of the Napoleon era. Their devotion had saved to him his empire, and they loved him for the service they had done him. He was *their* Emperor. Moreover, in his private character he was a kindly man, happy to pose as the bountiful father of his peasantry, chatting with them in homely fashion as he wandered unattended through the Vienna streets. To the deep plans of the despot, he thus added the surface methods of the politician. While he lived, the Viennese remained faithful and submissive to their “father.” And in Europe, to an extent which Americans can scarce realize, the capital speaks for the nation.

In Hungary, however, the voice of discontent grew loud. Francis attempted what no Hapsburg had yet succeeded in accomplishing—the reduction of the Magyars from their rank as an independent race to that of mere Austrian subjects. For years he avoided convoking the ancient Hungarian Diet. At last, in 1825, the clamor of the nation compelled him to summon the members together, and they at once defied him vigorously and successfully.

Francis Szechenyi, called by his countrymen “the Great Magyar,” was the leader in this movement. It was he who opened the path for modern civilization and improvements in Hungary, devoting to his country the whole influence of his high rank, vast wealth, and exceptionally brilliant abilities. He had swamps drained, bridges built, and everything possible done for ameliorating the poverty of his countrymen. Still more important in their eyes, he had the Magyar tongue substituted for Latin in the Hungarian Diet, and founded, out of his own fortune, a Magyar university. The Austrian court looked with distrust on these sturdy national movements and hampered them at every turn.

Similar intelligent efforts toward freedom and prosperity were made everywhere in Europe. Such were the "secret society" movements in Italy, and the war of independence in Greece. Wherever genuine progress appeared, there also appeared the mailed hand of the Austrian Government, interfering as the repressor of the people. Other monarchs began to see the impossibility of this blindly stubborn course, and the influence of Austria declined, as did her wealth and the patriotism of her subjects.

Francis died, and his son, Ferdinand IV. (1835-1848), succeeded to the throne. The new monarch proved weak-minded, almost to imbecility, and the government of his empire passed into the hands of a commission of officials with Metternich at their head.

To understand the events that followed, we must stop to look once more at the varied nations which submitted to the Hapsburg rule. In what is called Lower Austria—that is, the district around Vienna—the inhabitants were an indolent, pleasure-seeking race, who had never possessed political freedom, and, under their indulgent sovereign, had hardly felt the desire for it. In Upper Austria, the mountain land of the Tyrol and its surroundings, the peasantry had always been allowed to manage their local affairs; they were under little restraint, but were ignorant of the outside world—they long refused even to allow railways to run through their mountains—and were completely devoted to their priests and to their sovereigns, the Hapsburgs.

In other parts of the land, however, the feeling was less satisfactory. The down-trodden Slavs, particularly in the south, where Napoleon had made of them his "Illyrian Provinces," began to awake from their stupor and to remember that once they had been free and powerful. Bohemia asked what had become of the ancient rights under which she had elected the Hapsburgs to her throne, and which had never been formally surrendered. The Slav Poles had not forgotten their former independence. The Servians, a Romance race, had recently seen their kinsmen in Servia win liberty from the decaying Turkish Empire. Italy, held in subjection by Austrian troops, could be regarded only as a conquered land, ready to burst into fierce rebellion the instant opportunity offered.

In Hungary the situation was even more complicated. It must be kept in mind that the Magyars were not the original inhabitants of their land, but had come as conquerors among the earlier inhabitants, the Slavs. Throughout a thousand years the two races had failed to amalgamate, and remained in the nineteenth century as radically separate as in the ninth. The Slavs were still subject to their oppressors. "A Slav man is no man," says the Magyar proverb. All the power and wealth of the land lay in the hands of the dominant people, and the liberty which they so earnestly demanded for them-

selves, they were equally vehement in denying to their down-trodden subjects.

Thus the Austrian domains were a jumbled mass of smouldering combustibles, ready to flare up like tinder the instant a wind should fan them, and to burn furiously with such explosions as no man might foresee.

The threatened wind blew from France in 1848. The people there declared themselves once more a republic, and all through Europe swept the echoing cry for liberty. Italy rose at once against the tyrant Hapsburgs, as has been told in her own story. During the two years of disaster that followed, she was a continual thorn in the side of the Austrian Government, hampering its every effort and drawing away the troops, that were needed to crush rebellion nearer home.

Bohemia also had its tumults of revolt. The Emperor Ferdinand authorized the gathering of a Bohemian convention to plan government reforms. But Germans and Slavs quarrelled violently on the floor of the debating hall in Prague. The citizens upheld the Slavs; the Imperial troops, under their general, Windischgratz, favored the Germans. Rioting broke out in the streets of the city, barricades were built, a chance shot slew the young bride of Windischgratz, and his troops charged murderously upon the mob. Windischgratz, of his own authority, declared the convention dissolved, and Bohemian home rule was at an end.

Meanwhile in Austria the clamor burst out in Vienna itself. The university students, despite the fact that their teaching had been kept strictly in the hands of pro-Hapsburg professors, headed the revolt. They paraded the streets with petitions for a liberal government, they fought the Imperial troops sent against them, and persisted in their shouts of "Down with Metternich." The mob caught up the cry, and after a bloody street battle burned the palace of the ancient statesman. He fled from the city in a washerwoman's cart, and galloped with a cavalry escort out of Austria, else worse might have befallen him. The Emperor proclaimed the city under martial law, but the next moment yielded, authorized the arming of the students as a sort of national guard, and summoned a parliament.

This assembly, consisting of popularly elected representatives from all the varied Austrian states except Hungary, met in Vienna in July, 1848. Nothing except the Biblical "confusion of tongues" at Babel has ever matched this remarkable assemblage. At least seven totally distinct nations, speaking different languages, were represented. The members not only failed to understand one another; they were bitterly opposed, and quarrelled at every step. The Slavs were in the majority, and the Bohemian Slavs really dominated the Congress. Out of respect to Austria, however, German was the language in

which it was agreed to debate, and the delegates who could not understand it—a very considerable fraction of the whole—were furnished with interpreters.

Such a Congress necessarily moved slowly. Moreover, it was strongly anti-German in its tendencies. It did not suit the Viennese at all, and they, having suddenly tasted the intoxicating air of freedom, set no limits upon their desires for self-government. Thus Vienna contained at once an autocratic though feeble emperor with an army still at his command, a reforming and wildly debating but conservative congress, and a rabidly radical and irresponsible mob. There was much rioting in the streets, and the congressional delegates were with difficulty protected from assaults.

Meanwhile, affairs in Hungary were even more disastrously confused. The Diet assembled there at Pesth had, under the leadership of Louis Kossuth, demanded extensive reforms and complete self-government. The Emperor assented to everything they asked, and they unwisely and selfishly claimed too much. Magyar was made the official language of all the Hungarian lands, and the suffrage was so restricted as to keep all power in Magyar hands.

Hence the first widespread appeal to arms amid all the uproar, came from the races subject to the Magyars, the Sclavic and Romance people of the south. They asked the Hungarian Diet for equal rights, protested against the enforced use of the Magyar tongue, and demanded the removal of the insulting and contemptuous words with which Hungarian laws had always referred to them as inferior races. The Magyars scornfully refused these demands, and first the Servians, then the Croatian Slavs, began to gather in armies, under their governor or *Ban*, Jellachich.

It has been charged that the rebels were encouraged by the Imperial court. At any rate, they sent a delegation to the Vienna parliament to appeal for protection against the haughty Magyars. The envoys were well received, and when the Hungarians sent a counter delegation, the Sclavic majority of the parliament refused it admission.

The Imperial government then disowned the Hungarian parliament, displaced the native commander-in-chief of the government troops in Hungary, and substituted an Austrian general. When the unfortunate newcomer entered Pesth, he was murdered by a Magyar mob. The Emperor retaliated by declaring the insurgent Ban Jellachich commander in Hungary, and the Magyars accepted this as a declaration of war. Jellachich and his Croatians had been cruelly ravaging southern Hungary. They were defeated, many of them were captured, and the remainder fled with their leader into Austria.

Thus by an odd complication the uprising of the Slavs brought them into union with the Imperial government. The aristocratic Magyars also found themselves in strange alliance with the Austrian democrats. The Vienna pop-

ulace regarded the Hungarians as defying the tyranny of the government, and sympathized loudly with them in consequence.

The Viennese radicals even promised the Magyars that no further Austrian troops should march against Hungary, and kept the promise for a time by force. They destroyed the bridge over the Danube by which the regiments were ordered to march, and kidnapped the unfortunate minister of war, Latour, who was dragged naked through the streets, horribly beaten, and finally hanged to a lamppost by the Vienna mob.

The Emperor fled from the city. The conservative members of the parliament withdrew in dignified displeasure to Prague, and the Imperial armies under the Austrian general Windischgratz and the Sclavic Ban Jellachich marched to attack the capital. It resisted desperately; the regiments of students, especially the Tyrolese, fought heroically, but in vain. Vienna was bombarded and captured October 30, and the leading revolutionists were shot. A Hungarian army had marched to the assistance of the Viennese, but it arrived too late, and was compelled to retreat into Hungary followed by the Imperial forces.

Meanwhile, the Emperor Ferdinand, bewildered, terrified, and despairing, was persuaded by his family to resign his crown in favor of his energetic and popular young nephew. This nephew, the present Emperor Francis Joseph, ascended the throne December 2, 1848. The previous day had been his eighteenth birthday, and he had been hurriedly declared of legal age.

Francis Joseph proved at least a more vigorous ruler than his predecessor. He at once proclaimed himself a constitutional monarch. In his opening announcement to his subjects he declared that he was "firmly resolved to preserve the splendor of the crown without a blemish, but ready to share the imperial rights with the representatives of the people."

The war against the Hungarians was, however, continued. General Windischgratz won victory after victory from them, and on January 1, 1849, Kossuth removed the capital of the revolutionists from Pesth, which was soon occupied by the Austrian troops. Then the tide of war turned. The eloquent appeals of Kossuth raised army after army among the Magyars, and he, though himself ignorant of military affairs, found competent generals in Gorgei and the Polish commander Bem.

Windischgratz, after repeated defeats, was dismissed from his command; but his successors were as unable as he to check the heroic onslaught of the Magyars. The Austrians were driven out of Hungary, and the triumphant Hungarian Diet, which had never acknowledged Francis Joseph as its king, declared the reign of Ferdinand IV. at an end and the country independent (April 14, 1849).

This seemed the simple statement of an accomplished fact, for the Austrian

forces were completely defeated and demoralized. Yet its announcement brought down upon the Hungarians a new foe, the Russian Czar. He wanted no republics upon the border line of his own despotism, and promptly offered the use of all his troops to the Austrian Government. Overwhelming masses of Russians moved against the doomed Magyars. Their resistance was furious and bloody, but hopeless. Gorgei surrendered the helpless remnant of his army August 13, under circumstances strongly suggestive of treachery. The last outstanding fortress, Comorn, capitulated September 25; and Kossuth, with all the Hungarians who had taken a leading part in the rebellion, some five thousand unfortunates in all, fled to Turkey.

The Austrian Government resumed its authority in the exhausted land, which was placed under military rule. All those who thought themselves liable to vengeance had fled. But the Austrian general Haynau held a broader conception of the duties of his office, and managed to hang and slaughter and shoot and imprison, until the whole civilized world protested, and his government disowned and recalled him—and heaped honors on his contemptible head.

Hungary was crushed—but only for the moment. Truly her spirit seems imperishable and beyond the control of man. Kossuth was still alive, and in his exile he journeyed from land to land, pleading for his people, making their cause known everywhere in the world. America heard his speeches in 1851, and he was made the honored guest of our nation. Hungary could not perish while Kossuth lived.



FRANCIS JOSEPH RIDING UP THE SACRED MOUNT AS KING OF HUNGARY



FRANCIS JOSEPH OPENING THE BRIDGE OVER THE DANUBE

Chapter LXXV

THE MODERN AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE



Y the close of 1849 the Austrian monarch once more reigned unopposed over undiminished territories. But they had been restored to him only through Russian aid. The weakness of his position was recognized, and the Hapsburg influence over Europe had disappeared.

It is a painful task to trace the mistaken policy and slow decay of a once mighty state. Francis Joseph attempted to hold Hungary, Italy, and Vienna itself under strict control by force. Even the Slavs, who had remained faithful to their sovereign, were deceived and tricked.

Ferdinand IV. had promised them a constitution, and the remnant of the parliament that had abandoned Vienna in 1848 continued to hold sessions under Ferdinand's authority at Kremsier in Moravia. They had set for themselves the impossible task of drawing up a constitution which should be acceptable to everybody in the empire. Francis Joseph allowed them to continue their sittings until their work was finished, and the new constitution was ready for promulgation in March, 1849. Then, the imperial government, having thus kept the people quiet as long as possible, gravely announced to the parliament that, since its members no longer represented the entire Empire, it would be unfair to allow them to act for the Empire, or force their constitution upon all its districts.

They were therefore dismissed, and the Emperor conferred a constitution of his own upon his faithful subjects, a constitution which gave small recognition to the Slavs, which satisfied nobody, which never worked in practice, and was

never intended to do so. It was only given to pacify the people, and was withdrawn at the end of 1851, as soon as the Emperor felt once more secure upon his throne.

The Hapsburg Empire thus returned once more to its ancient policy of repression, and, despite the lesson of 1848, continued until 1860 an absolute monarchy. The Hapsburgs have been slow to learn, and Francis Joseph, persisting in the futile effort of his ancestors, attempted to Germanize his domains, though not one-fourth of his subjects were really of that race.

Austria's position as the leading German state was maintained at every cost. Prussia's efforts to secure this place were persistently opposed. Home interests were neglected for foreign; the public debt increased, and so also did the poverty and misery of the subject peoples.

Italy escaped from this house of sorrow in 1859. Being in constant fear of rebellion, Austria saw danger in the armies of the Italian King of Sardinia and declared war against him. All Italy eagerly united with him, France lent him her aid, and the Austrians were defeated at Magenta and Solferino. The Hapsburgs lost all their Italian possessions except Venetia.

More galling than the defeat must have been the knowledge that their humiliation was welcomed with savage joy by the vast majority of their subjects. The Bohemians said openly: "If we are defeated in Italy, we shall be granted a constitution; if we win, we shall be put under the inquisition."

The defeat did, indeed, bring an Austrian constitution in its train. At last the Emperor was convinced that he alone could not bring back the dark ages, that the spirit of modern liberty was stronger than he. Very slowly, like a child groping in darkness, he began to make feeble efforts toward conferring their rights upon his people. The constitution of 1861, called Schmerling's law, from the minister chosen to enforce its provisions, proved, however, almost as much a piece of trickery as the earlier ones. It pretended to give equal rights to all the nationalities; but Schmerling, a German, so apportioned the delegates as to preserve German supremacy. Thus in Bohemia, the Slavic capital Prague, with a population of one hundred and fifty thousand, was allowed only ten representatives, while a neighboring town, one-tenth the capital's size but peopled with Germans, had three. One German village of five hundred people elected a representative of its own; one Slavic city of eight thousand had none.

It was clear that either Francis Joseph or his ministers were still bent on Germanizing the Empire. They had yet another lesson to learn. The Venetians refused to have anything to do with this constitution of Schmerling. So did the Hungarians. The latter, under their leader Francis Deak, "the Wise,"

as they have named him, returned only one answer to all entreaties to enter the new arrangement. "We have a constitution already, our own ancient one. Give it back. We know nothing of any other."

The Bohemians were equally dissatisfied, and though at first they attended the meetings of the new parliament, they found themselves in a helpless minority and soon refused to have anything further to do with it. There was a Polish rebellion in 1863. By 1865 Francis Joseph admitted that the whole plan was a failure, and dismissed his minister Schmerling. Celebrations and illuminations followed through all the Sclavic towns. The Poles and Bohemians ventured to introduce their own language into their schools, which had previously been taught in German.

To the Magyars the Emperor himself appealed, to know what would satisfy them. He was met with the steadfast demand for the return of their ancient rights, but these he was not yet ready to grant.

Then the war with Prussia broke out in 1866. The Bohemians, being nearest Prussia, asked arms wherewith to defend themselves; but the government dared not trust them, and refused. Some of the Hungarians talked openly of allying themselves with Austria's foes. This remarkable "Seven Weeks' War," ending with the defeat of Koeniggratz, showed the world how far behind in the march of civilization this heavy, unwieldy Austria had fallen, and how little avail were her forty millions of ignorant and impoverished people, when opposed to an intellectual and energetic modern race. The favorite German saying can never be impressed too strongly on us: "It was the Prussian schoolmasters who won the battle of Koeniggratz."

One ray of triumph softened to the Austrians the bitterness of their overwhelming defeat. Italy had joined Prussia in the war, and Austria's troops had defeated the Italians at Custozza, her fleet under Admiral Tegethoff had destroyed their navy at Lissa. These victories availed nothing, however, in the treaty of peace that followed. Austria, losing Venetia, was driven out of Italy, and, forfeiting her rank as a member of the German confederation, was driven out of Germany.

Fate has thus forced upon the Hapsburgs a wisdom they have never shown for themselves. For three centuries they had striven for German and Italian power, looking upon their eastern territories only as a treasury from which to draw men and money for conquest in the west. Expelled at last from both Italy and Germany, Francis Joseph perforce turned his attention to establishing himself within his own domains. Dissociated from the other German states, the Germanizing of his possessions was no longer possible.

From sad experience he knew that there was no one of his own statesmen capable of uniting and satisfying all his discordant nations. So he summoned

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